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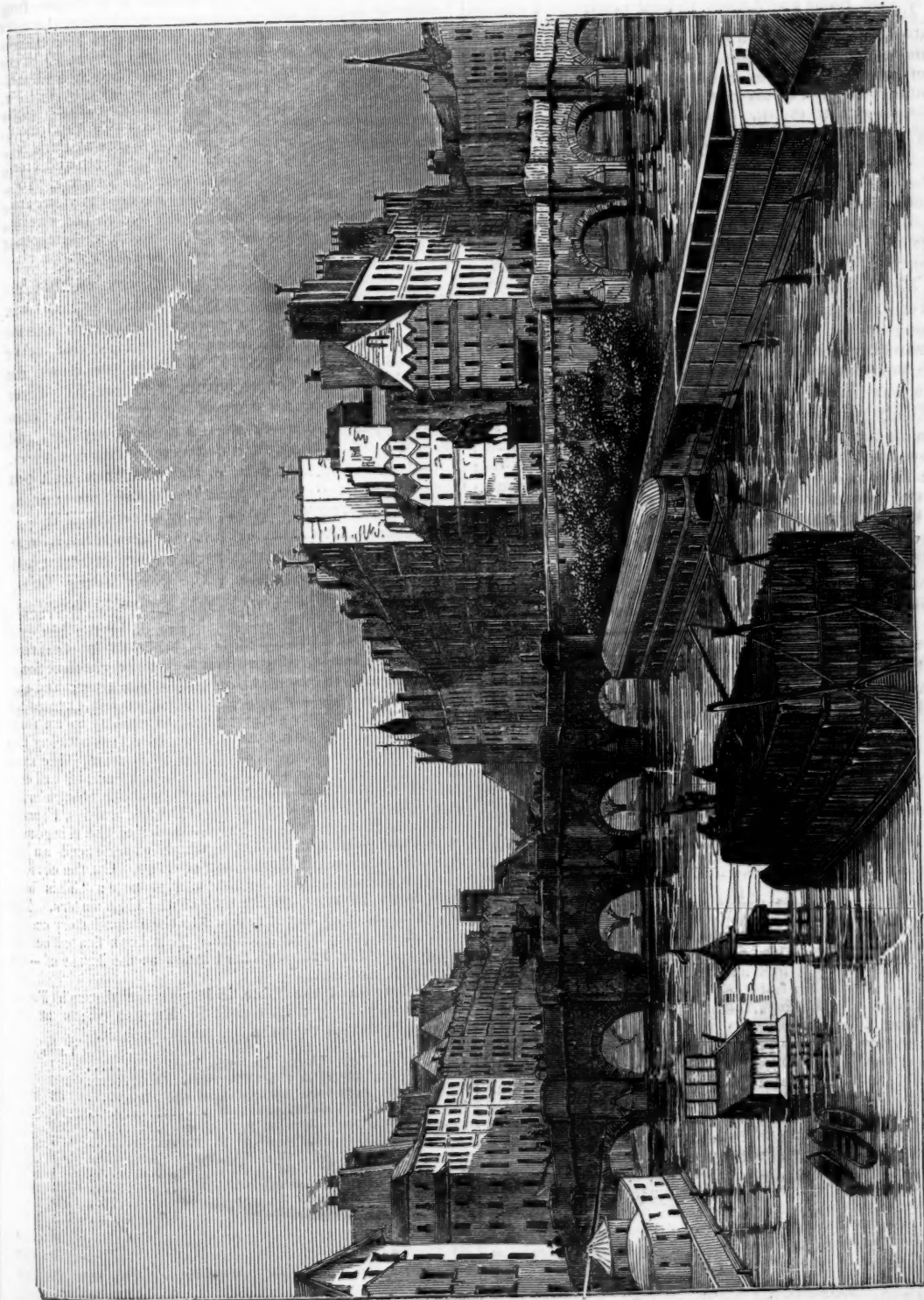
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VIEW OF THE PONT-NEUF, AND THE WESTERN END OF THE ISLAND OF THE CITY, AT PARIS.

## SOME ACCOUNT OF PARIS, HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE

## PART THE FIRST

THERE is no city in the world which possesses stronger claims to our attention than Paris, the capital of the French monarchy. Some cities indeed surpass it, as they likewise surpass all others, in particular sources of interest:—as, for instance, Rome and Athens, in local sanctity and classical associations;—Constantinople, in beauty of scenery and picturesque effect;—and London in the vastness of its size and commerce. But not one of these cities, nor, indeed, any other, has figured so conspicuously on the scene of modern history as Paris; which may boast of having been the theatre of events, unparalleled in the annals of the world. Moreover, in all the ordinary attractions of a great capital, as in works of architecture, sculpture, painting, &c., Paris is not deficient; while, in regard to some of them, such as collections of natural history, &c., it is undoubtedly pre-eminent.

It is our intention to devote a series of supplements to an account of this great city; not confining ourselves to a description of it as it exists at the present day, but illustrating its former condition, at various periods, and narrating the more prominent occurrences in its eventful history.

Before, however, entering into the history of Paris, it will be desirable for us to offer some remarks upon its situation and physical characteristics,—“to describe the locality of the scene, before introducing the things and persons about to figure in it.” The latitude of the observatory of Paris is  $48^{\circ} 50' 14''$ ; but that building is near the southern limit of the city, the centre of which lies about a mile and a half further to the north. The longitude of the observatory is, in French language, *zero*, the meridian of that building being itself the starting point of French geographers; according to our system, in which the starting point is Greenwich, the longitude of Paris is said to be  $2^{\circ} 20' 24''$  E., just as, in the French system, the longitude of Greenwich is said to be  $2^{\circ} 20' 24''$  W. Comparing Paris with London, in respect of latitude, we find that the observatory in the former lies  $2^{\circ} 40' 33''$  (or about 121 miles) further south than the cathedral of St. Paul's in the latter.

The following are the direct distances of some of the French towns and the principal cities of Europe from Paris, in English miles:

Amiens .....	75	Calais .....	145	Nantes .....	201
Bayonne .....	408	Dieppe .....	92	Orléans .....	65
Bordeaux .....	306	Havre .....	108	Rouen .....	68
Boulogne .....	131	Lyons .....	240	Strasbourg .....	242
Brest .....	315	Marseilles .....	450	Toulouse .....	365
Amsterdam ....	260	Dresden .....	537	Rome .....	685
Antwerp .....	188	The Hague .....	233	Stockholm ....	960
Berlin .....	545	Lisbon .....	902	St. Petersburg ..	1345
Brussels .....	154	London .....	214	Turin .....	345
Constantinople ..	1397	Madrid .....	652	Venice .....	525
Copenhagen ....	639	Milan .....	397	Vienna .....	643
Dantzic .....	794	Naples .....	802	Warsaw .....	851

## THE RIVER SEINE, &amp;c.

PARIS is watered by two streams, one of which alone, the Seine, is worthy of being considered a river; the other, called the Bièvre, being an insignificant rivulet. The Seine has its source in the forest of Chauceaux, two leagues from Saint Seine, in the department of the Côte-d'Or. Before reaching Paris, it receives the tributary waters of the Yonne, the Yerre, and the Marne; below that city it receives the Oise and the Eure, and enters the sea between the towns of Havre and Honfleur, after a very winding course. In its passage through Paris, it flows from south-east to north-west, for the most part in a straight course; but just before leaving the city it makes a considerable bend to the south-west. The length of its course within the walls,—that is to say, from the barrier of *la Rapée* on the east to that of *Passy* on the west, is 8940 yards.

The Seine divides Paris, as the Thames divides London, into two unequal parts; but the difference between the northern and southern portions of Paris is by no means so great, either in point of size or importance, as between the correspondent portions of our own metropolis. Moreover, in its passage through the city, the river forms three islands

in close succession,—the *Ile Louviers*, the *Ile Saint Louis*, and the *Ile de la Cité*. Of these, the first is about 600 yards in length; it is uninhabited, being used only for dépôts of fire-wood. The *Ile Saint Louis*, which has been built upon since the reign of Louis XIII., is about 750 yards long. The westernmost island, or that “of the city,” is the oldest part of Paris, and may be termed its cradle; its length is about 1350 yards. Formerly it was not so great; it became what it is in the reign of Henry the Fourth, when two small islands, which had lain apart from it, since the earliest ages of Paris, were united, and added to its western extremity.

Unlike the Thames at London, the Seine at Paris is not influenced by the tide; consequently the depth and breadth of its waters vary continually with the seasons. In the summer its bed is in many places exposed to view, and in some it is even fordable; during the winter the stream is greatly augmented, and its current often becomes impetuous. Its velocity at ordinary times is about a mile and a quarter an hour, between the Pont Neuf, and the Pont Royal.

The height of the waters of the Seine is measured according to scales which are placed at three of the bridges,—the Pont de la Tournelle, the Pont Royal, and the Pont Louis XVI.,—and is reckoned from the low-water mark of the year 1719. The practice of noting with precision the variations in the height of the river, was commenced in the reign of Louis XIV.; the following table exhibits some of the most remarkable. The measures are French mètres\*; and they are counted from the zero point of the scale, at the Pont de la Tournelle.

1645, July 11 .....	9.04	1764, Nov. 15 .....	7.00
1649, Jan. ....	7.65	1784, March 4 .....	6.66
1651, Jan. ....	7.80	1799, Feb. 4 .....	6.97
1658, March 1 .....	8.80	1802, Jan. 3 .....	7.32
1690, March .....	7.50	1807, March 3 .....	6.70
1711, March .....	7.55	1817, March .....	6.30
1740, Dec. 25 .....	7.90	1836, May 8 .....	6.40
1751, Jan. ....	6.70		

These risings of the Seine have often been the cause of serious damage. We occasionally read, in the history of Paris, of their carrying away its bridges. Their ravages were more especially destructive before the construction of the quays, which now line the banks of the river; and even at the present day a rise of about eighteen feet exposes the lower part of the city and the adjacent country to an inundation. Dulaure, the historian of Paris, in noticing this subject, supplies us with a curious illustration. He says, “I have before me a small volume, in 12mo., in bad condition, entitled *Les Antiquités, Fondations, Singularités des Villes, Châteaux du Royaume*, (The Antiquities, Foundations, Singularities of the Cities, Castles of the Kingdom,) which was printed in 1605, and which experienced an adventure, during the inundation of 1740. On the cover of the volume is the following manuscript note: ‘This book was found in 1740, at the time of the high waters. The water was so high that it reached to the second story on the quay of the porte Saint Bernard. This book floated on the water; it entered through the window at the house of — (Signed) LENOBLE.’”

The breadth of the Seine, in its passage through Paris, varies considerably; its extent in English yards at the principal points is shown in the following table.

	Yards.
At the Pont d'Austerlitz, entire breadth .....	181
At the Pont de la Tournelle, small arm .....	106
At the Pont Saint Michel, small arm .....	53
At the Pont Marie, great arm .....	90
At the Pont Notre-Dame, great arm .....	106
At the Pont au Change, great arm .....	106
Below the Pont-Neuf, where the two arms unite .....	287
At the Pont des Arts, entire breadth .....	153
At the Pont Royal, entire breadth .....	92
At the Pont Louis XVI., entire breadth .....	160
At the Pont des Invalides, entire breadth .....	149

The rivulet of the *Bièvre* or of the *Gobelins* which has its source in the neighbourhood of Versailles, joins the Seine soon after that river has entered Paris, thus cutting

\* The French mètre is rather more than the English yard; its exact value is 1.093633 yard.

off the south-eastern corner of the capital. After a course of about eight leagues it enters the city across the Boulevard des Gobelins, traverses the faubourgs Saint Marcel, and Saint Victor, setting in motion several mills, and supplying numerous washing, tanning, brewing, and dyeing establishments, and falls into the Seine on the Quai de l'Hôpital, just above the bridge of Austerlitz. Although the ordinary breadth of this little stream is only about twelve feet, it has sometimes caused serious damage by overflowing its banks. An instance is recorded in the year 1479, and another in 1579; the latter is thus related in the *Journal of Henry III.*

"On the night of Wednesday, April 1st, 1579, the river of Saint Marceau, by reason of the rains of the preceding days, increased to the height of fourteen or fifteen feet, knocked down several mills, walls, and houses, drowned many persons who were surprised in their houses and beds, destroyed a great quantity of cattle, and did infinite damage. On the morrow and following days, the people of Paris ran to see this disaster in great terror. The water was so high that it flowed into the church, and even to the great altar of the Cordelières of Saint Marceau, ravaging like a torrent in great fury; nevertheless it lasted only thirty hours or a little more."

The water of the Bièvre has always possessed the reputation of being peculiarly well adapted to the processes of dyeing. For several centuries establishments for dyeing wool have constantly existed on its banks; one of the earliest among them was that of the Gobelins family, which has since become so celebrated as the Royal Manufactory of Tapestry. The impurity however of the water, even before its entry into the city, renders it unsuited to domestic purposes.

In former years, there existed at Paris, besides the Seine and the Bièvre, a small brook, which entered the former upon the northern side of the city. It had its source at Ménilmontant, a village in the north-east; it traversed the northern quarters of the city and entered the Seine on the Quay Debilly, below Chaillot, near the western extremity of the capital. This rivulet, however, was absorbed by the quarries opened beneath it; and it has since suffered a fate similar to that of the Fleet River of our own metropolis, its bed now forming what is called the "Great Sewer" of Paris.

#### SITUATION AND SURFACE.

PARIS is situated in the midst of a large plain, which is encompassed by hills of various heights, and which is known to geologists by the name of the "Paris basin," being regarded by them as probably the bed of an immense lake of which the Seine and the Bièvre are now the only remains. On the northern side of the Seine, a chain of heights extends in a semicircular form from the eastern to the western extremity of the city; it is composed of a succession of hills known by the names of Bercy, Charonne, Ménilmontant, Belleville, la Villette, Montmartre, and Chaillot. On the southern side the heights are less elevated, and less strongly marked; the principal are, the plateau of Sainte-Geneviève, which rises about 110 feet above the low-water mark of the Seine; and the plateau of Mont-Souris, on which is erected one of the obelisks, (the other being on Montmartre,) which indicate the direction of the meridian line of the observatory. At a greater distance is a more elevated chain composed of the heights of Villejuif, Rungis, Lai, Bagneux, Meudon, Saint Cloud, and terminating in the celebrated Mont Calvaire, or Mont Valérien, the loftiest of all the hills in the neighbourhood of Paris.

The soil of Paris at the present day is considerably raised above what it was formerly. This has arisen from various causes: the deposits from the inundations of the Seine, the measures taken by the inhabitants to protect themselves from those inundations, as well as to facilitate the drainage of the city, the paving of its streets, and more especially the construction of bridges, which necessarily occasioned an elevation of the approaches, and by degrees, of the adjoining streets. In various places, excavations have led to the discovery of an ancient pavement; for instance, in the Rue Saint-Jacques, (on the southern side of the river,) at the depth of eight feet, and also of ten feet below the actual surface. A writer who saw it at the former depth, tells us that at the same time it was perceived that a second row of pavement had formerly existed between it and the present one. In the Rue du Plâtre Saint-Jacques, nearly all the houses have two stories of cellars; and beneath the modern church of St. Sulpice, a part of the ancient

edifice on which it is built, may be seen completely under ground.

It is more particularly in the *Ile de la Cité* that examples of this elevation of the soil are to be found. The pavement of many of the old churches in this quarter used to be eight or nine feet lower than that of the streets; for instance, to enter the chapel of Saint-Aignan, which stood near Notre-Dame, and was destroyed in 1795, it was necessary to descend twenty steps. But the history of Notre-Dame itself affords the most remarkable illustration. At the beginning of the fifteenth century, in the reign of Louis XII., an ascent of thirteen steps led into that cathedral; in the middle of last century a descent of thirteen steps was necessary. At the present day the pavement of the cathedral is nearly on a level with the soil of the adjoining area or place, which was lowered with that view in 1748.

It was principally in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries that the most considerable elevations of the soil were effected. In 1507 we find the parliament ordering that the street leading across the Ile du Palais from the Petit-Pont to the Pont Notre-Dame, should be raised ten feet; and after 1572, when Catherine de Médicis had built the Hotel de Soissons, the site of which is now occupied by the corn-market, the soil was raised fifteen feet. So late as 1818 and 1819, the streets surrounding the new hall of the Marché Saint-Germain were raised several yards.

In all probability the ground on which Paris stands, at the base of the heights already mentioned, was originally quite level, but at the present day it is disturbed by various inequalities. These are in almost every case the result of artificial causes. In the gradual course of its growth, Paris was fortified by several successive enclosures of ditches and ramparts, and, although these have long since disappeared, they have left many traces behind them, in the unevenness of their site. Wherever gates were opened in the circuit, there were necessarily so many interruptions or breaks in the elevated rampart. This accounts for the frequent inequalities or undulations occurring in the level of the *Boulevards*, formed by Louis XIV., on the site of the "bulwarks" which he demolished.

Another cause of the inequalities in the soil of Paris is to be found in the heaps of filth and rubbish deposited by the inhabitants on spots which were once without the city, but by the enlargement of its circuit came to be included within it. These mounds, called *buttes* or *voiries*, were numerous, and they gradually rose to a considerable height. Among those on the north side of the river were the *Monceau Saint-Gervais*, the *Butte de Bonnes-Nouvelles* or of *Ville-neuve de Gravois*, the *Butte Saint Roch*, &c., all of which were levelled as the space they occupied came to be needed. The Butte Saint-Roch so late as the reign of Louis XIV. retained its "agrestic form," with the windmills on its little hillocks; it was demolished in 1667, but not so completely as not to leave several inequalities in the quarter to which it gives its name.

Several other mounds near the northern Boulevards were levelled in the reign of Louis XIV. There stood one of them on the rampart of the Porte Saint-Denis, and during the disastrous famine of 1709 the poor were employed to remove it. For this service they were to receive bread; but one day during the work, the distribution not being made as usual, they rose, under the pressure of hunger, betook themselves to the house in which the bread was deposited, pillaged it, as well as some bakers' shops, and then marched off to the hotel of M. d'Argenson. The French guards, the Swiss guards, and the *Mousquetaires*, immediately mounted their horses, and, to continue in the words of the writer who records these circumstances, "there were some of the rabble killed, because it was necessary to fire upon them, and some others put into prison." Dulaure has well observed that this is the language of a courtier who was not hungry.

Similar artificial mounds were likewise formed in the *Ile de la Cité*, and on the south side of the river; the latter, indeed, still retains one of them entire. This is the *Butte des Coqueux*, which has been agreeably metamorphosed into one of the ornaments of the *Garden of Plants*, by planting it with evergreens, and disposing its paths into the form of a labyrinth. Its summit rises to the height of about 120 feet, and affords a good view of the garden and the adjacent parts.

It would appear, however, that some of the ancient Buttes were still higher; for in 1512, when a siege was apprehended from the English, it was resolved in an assembly to level all these mounds, which rose much higher than the city walls. It was likewise decided that the inhabitants of Paris should be ordered to deposit their rubbish, &c., in more distant



places. These measures, however, were not carried into execution, for some years after, in an assembly held on the 29th of March, 1525, Jean Briçonnet, president of the Chamber of Accounts, proposed that the *voiries* which surrounded Paris should be levelled, saying, that there were some of them so high that they commanded the city. The Archbishop of Aix, who was then the governor, considered these *voiries* as so many fortresses raised against the place. It was determined, accordingly, to level them; but the resolution could not have been carried into complete execution, as we find several of the Buttes existing at subsequent dates.

#### SOIL OF PARIS; ITS QUARRIES.

THE natural soil of Paris is a gypseous marl, but there is above this, in most places, a stratum of foreign matter which has principally been deposited by the river. "The country in which this capital is situated," say MM. Cuvier and Brongniart, "is, perhaps, one of the most remarkable which have ever been observed, on account of the different earths of which it is composed, as well as of the extraordinary remains of ancient organization which it exhibits. Thousands of marine shells, with which are regularly alternated fresh-water shells, form the principal mass; bones of terrestrial animals entirely unknown, even in their kind, occupy certain portions. Other bones of species, considerable in size, and of which we find some congeners only in very distant countries, are scattered in the more superficial series; a very marked character of a great irruption coming from the south-east, is imprinted on the forms of the capes and the directions of the principal hills; in a word, there is no district more capable of instructing us on the least revolutions which have determined the formation of our continents."

One of the products of the soil of Paris and its environs, is an article of considerable commercial importance, namely, the *gypsum* or *plaster* of Paris, as it is commonly called, which abounds in the basin of the Seine, and of which the hill of Montmartre entirely consists. A compact limestone is likewise found in considerable quantities; it is of this that the great buildings in Paris are principally composed. It especially abounds on the southern side of the river, in the high ground or plateau, extending from Choisy to Meudon, in which numberless quarries have been dug to a considerable depth.

It is a remarkable fact, that these quarries penetrate a considerable distance under Paris; in other words, that a very large portion of the French capital is actually undermined. Several of the southern quarters of this metropolis, containing many of its chief public edifices, the Luxembourg, the Observatory, the Odéon, the Val-de-Grace, the Panthéon, Church of Saint-Sulpice, and some of its principal streets, as the Rues de Saint-Jacques, de la Harpe, de Tournon, de Vaugirard, &c., stand upon immense vaults, in which they are liable to be swallowed up. "No great shock is wanting," says a French writer, "to throw down all the stones of Paris into the place from whence they were quarried. The towers, and domes, and steeples, are so many signs which tell the spectator that whatever he sees above his head has been taken from under his feet."

Till towards the latter end of the last century, the existence of these quarries under a great part of Paris, was known only as a popular tradition: the attention of the government was first roused by some alarming accidents which occurred in the year 1774, and in 1776 a survey was made and plans taken. The frightful discovery was then made that "the churches, the palaces, and most of the public ways of the southern quarters of Paris were ready to sink into immense gulfs." A board of engineers was appointed to direct the necessary works, and repair, as far as possible, the faults of past generations, in so inconsiderately raising such vast superstructures at the expense of their natural base. The very day that this body was instituted, a house in the Rue d'Enfer sank down ninety-one feet below the level of its court-yard.

The most remarkable and best known of these subterraneous caverns, are the *Caves de l'Observatoire* and the *Catacombes*. The former are so styled because the descent to them is by a staircase in the observatory; and the latter derive their appellation from the circumstance of their having been appropriated in 1785 for the reception of the bones from the different cemeteries within the walls of Paris. We shall have occasion to speak of them more particularly hereafter.

The greatest known depth of these quarries is seventy-nine metres, or 250 English feet.

#### THE ANCIENT PARISII.

MOST great cities have a romantic and fabulous origin,—the gift of those credulous writers of former ages, who, to use the language of Dulaure, "adopted without hesitation the fictions of the barbarous ages, and sowed the field of history with errors difficult to be out-rooted." The French capital has, in this respect, been liberally endowed,—as much so, indeed, as Rome itself. For if that ancient mistress of the world was founded by a son of Mars, the suckling of a wolf, Paris ascribes its foundation to a Trojan prince, a son of the great Hector, who, escaping from the memorable burning of his native city, betook himself to Gaul, the original country of his ancestors, and by a fortunate marriage became possessed of the throne of that kingdom. The name of this hero was Francus; he first built a new Troy (the modern Troies) in Champagne, to keep up the memory of the old one, and then founded a city on the Seine, to which he gave the name of his uncle, the accomplished Paris. His own name was, of course, kept for the kingdom itself.

The bold fabricators of this preposterous story go still further. They have precisely established the genealogy, and minutely recorded the acts and deeds of the Trojan kings who ruled over Gaul, assigning to each the institutions peculiar to his reign; and to shed still greater lustre on this dynasty, they have generously traced its source to Samothres, the son of Japheth, and grandson of Noah. Jupiter and Hercules figure in the list of Gallic sovereigns, from which they were borrowed by the Greeks.

Setting aside these, and other ingenious fables of a similar cast, let us turn to the evidence of sober history. In the *Commentaries* of Julius Cæsar occurs the first mention of a people called *Parisii*, who dwelt in a district on the Seine, near where Paris now stands. They are shortly described as bordering on the nation of the Senones, to whom they had been united within the memory of their elders. As this description applies to the year 54 B.C., the union probably took place about one hundred years before Christ. What their condition previously was, we do not know; but as fugitive tribes were occasionally permitted by the principal nations of Gaul to settle on their frontiers, and admitted into alliance with them upon particular conditions, the local and political connexion of the *Parisii* and Senones has been explained by the supposition that the former were a fugitive people, (perhaps from the country of the Belgæ,) thus received by the latter. The territory occupied by the *Parisii* was of small extent, not exceeding ten or twelve leagues in any direction.

The town of the *Parisii* was called *Lutetia*; Cæsar describes it as situated on an island in the Seine. That island was the Ile du Palais of modern Paris; being one of the five (now reduced to three) which the river then formed at that spot. No wall encompassed it, the Seine being its only fortification; nor is the name of town strictly applicable to what was at best but a collection of mud hovels resorted to as a place of refuge in time of need. Dulaure maintains that at this period the Gauls had not any towns; but that they dwelt in cabins scattered over the country, and when they feared an attack, retired with their families, provisions, and cattle, into their fortresses, where they hastily built huts for their shelter. The name *Lutetia* is supposed to be a Latinized form of some Celtic appellation, signifying a dwelling-place in the midst of a river.

Concerning the etymology of the word *Parisii*, there have been several conjectures. Dulaure thinks that it is not the original name of the people to whom the Senones assigned a territory, but that it was afterwards applied to them on account of their position on the frontier between two of the great divisions of ancient Gaul, namely, Belgic and Celtic Gaul. There were, he says, both in Gaul and in Great Britain, many other geographical positions called *Parisii*, or *Barisii*, the letters *P* and *B* being often used the one for the other, and all those are found to be frontier positions. The conclusion thence drawn is that *Parisii* and *Barisii* signified "inhabitants of frontiers," and that the tribe received by the Senones owed its name of *Parisii* to its situation on the frontier of that nation. This conjecture, as the same writer observes, is more probable than that which derives the name of Paris from the Trojan prince, or from the Greek word *parrhesia*, signifying "boldness," the inhabitants being so very brave, &c., or from a certain king named *Isus*, or from the Egyptian goddess *Isis*, who has often been erroneously represented as a divinity of the ancient *Parisii*.

## CONQUESTS OF THE ROMANS.

In the year 700 from the foundation of Rome, or fifty-four before the Christian era, Julius Cæsar, being in want of cavalry to extend his conquests, convoked a general assembly of the nations of Gaul. The Treviri, the Carnutes, and the Senones, the most powerful of all, disregarded the summons. The absence of deputies from these nations implied a contempt of the convocation, and hostile intentions towards the Roman general; and moreover presented an obstacle to his projects of conquest. Learning that the feeble nation of the Parisii, although allied with the Senones, had taken no part in the resistance of the latter, he convoked a new assembly in Lutetia, and on the same day marched with his legions against the Senones, who, at his approach, promised to send deputies. The Carnutes followed their example, and Cæsar having succeeded in assembling the chiefs of Gaul at Lutetia, obtained from them a promise to furnish him with cavalry.

In the following year, nearly all the nations of Gaul rose against the tyranny of the Roman conqueror, who, after gaining a victory in Bern with difficulty, and being defeated in Auvergne, was compelled to flee and rejoin the legions which Labienus, his lieutenant, commanded at Agedincum, a place situated upon the frontiers of the Senones. But in the mean while, the nations contiguous to the Parisii having likewise raised the standard of insurrection, Labienus marched with four legions against the insurgents, and, passing along the northern bank of the Seine, advanced towards Lutetia.

The Gauls, upon learning the approach of Labienus, assembled a large force from the neighbouring territories, and placed them under the command of Camulogenus, an aged chieftain of the Auleri, famed for his military skill; and under his direction they took up a position in the Romans' line of route, behind an extensive marsh on the banks of the Seine, probably near the confluence of that river with the Marne. Labienus at first attempted to fill up the marsh, by means of hurdles, mounds, and other implements of the military art, but finding the task too difficult, he silently broke up his camp in the night, and retraced his steps till he reached *Melodunum*, (the modern Melun,) a town of the Senones, seated like Lutetia on an island in the Seine. Here he contrived to seize about fifty large boats, by the aid of which he speedily made himself master of the place, many of the inhabitants being absent with the confederate forces. Repairing the bridge, which the enemy had destroyed a few days before, he crossed his army over the river, and marched along its southern bank towards Lutetia. The Gauls, when the news of these proceedings reached them, ordered Lutetia to be burnt, and its bridges to be broken down; then quitting their encampment behind the marsh, they took up their station on the northern bank of the Seine opposite that town, the Roman camp facing them upon the southern bank.

At this juncture Labienus became aware of Cæsar's critical position, and his intended march towards Agedincum. This intelligence changed his plans; and it now became his object not so much to provoke the Gauls to battle, as to lead back his army safe to that town. With an active and powerful enemy before him, and nations of doubtful amity all around, he was naturally anxious for the safety of his own troops, separated as they were by the river from their garrison and supplies. In this emergency he had recourse to fresh manœuvres.

He had brought with him the vessels which he had seized at Melun; in each of these he placed a Roman knight, with orders to descend the Seine, in the silence of the evening, four miles, and there await him. Five cohorts (perhaps 2500 men), the least to be relied on in battle, were to remain and protect the camp; the remaining five, of the same legion, were ordered to march up the river, openly and with all their baggage, in the middle of the night, attended by boats rowed with a great noise. Labienus himself soon afterwards set out with the rest of his army—three legions—marched down to the place whither he had sent the Melun boats to await him, and favoured by a sudden storm which relaxed the vigilance of the Gallic scouts, succeeded in quickly transporting the whole of his force, horse and foot, to the northern bank of the Seine.

Towards daybreak the Gauls became informed of these manœuvres; and concluding that the Romans, alarmed at the turn which events had recently taken, were seeking to escape to Agedincum by crossing the river at three places, they divided their army into three bodies likewise. Of

these one body remained before Lutetia in the face of the Roman camp; a second ascended the river towards Melun, while the third marched down the stream to meet Labienus, with whom they speedily became engaged in a severe conflict.

This battle is supposed to have been fought on the heights of Chéillot, or in the plains to their west. The left wing of the Gauls was broken at the first shock and put to flight; the foremost ranks of their right were struck down by the Roman javelins, but the rest stood firm, and encouraged by their leader Camulogenus, offered stout resistance. The issue of the fight was for a time uncertain; when the seventh legion coming from the victorious right attacked the Gauls in the rear. "Not even then," says Cæsar, "did any man of them give way; but all were surrounded and slain," their chieftain among them. The arrival of a fresh body of Gauls,—that one which had been left to watch the Roman camp—produced no change in the fortune of the day; unable to sustain the onset of the victorious Romans, they fled with the rest, and "those whom the woods and heights did not shelter were slain by the cavalry." The action being over, Labienus effected his object of regaining Agedincum.

In a subsequent passage of Cæsar's *Commentaries*, the Parisii are mentioned as furnishing a small contingent to the confederate army of Gauls. Thenceforward, for a period of 400 years, history is silent concerning them, as well as their town Lutetia. We are told, indeed, by some ingenious and fanciful antiquaries, that Cæsar, struck with the advantages of its situation, rebuilt Lutetia, surrounded it with walls, and erected two forts at the heads of the two bridges, by which the island was approached from north and south. These assertions are wholly unsupported by historical evidence, yet they are found in modern French works of some repute, and constantly repeated in the best guide-books to the present day.

## CONDITION OF PARIS UNDER THE ROMANS.

SOON after the middle of the fourth century a great change took place in the condition of the Parisii—a change which affected the name of their capital. During the four centuries for which they had been under the dominion of the Romans, they had enjoyed none of those privileges which the conquerors sometimes granted to vanquished nations, and which entitled them to the epithet of free, allied or friendly. Their fortress or town, Lutetia, was at no time the metropolis of a province, as were many of the towns of Gaul; and the diminutive appellations applied to it by the writers who mention it, show that it must have been a comparatively small and unimportant place.

The change to which we have referred was preceded by great calamities. In the middle of the fourth century, during the contest for empire between Constantius and Magnentius, the former imprudently encouraged the barbarians of Germany to cross the Rhine, abandoning to them the countries of Gaul, which acknowledged the authority of his rival. Careless of nice distinctions, these formidable allies continued to plunder, burn, and murder, even after the authority of Constantius was fully established. "From the sources to the mouth of the Rhine, the conquests of the Germans extended above forty miles to the west of that river, over a country peopled by colonies of their own name and nation; and the scene of their devastations was three times more extensive than that of their conquests. At a still greater distance the open towns of Gaul were deserted, and the inhabitants of the fortified cities, who trusted to their strength and vigilance, were obliged to content themselves with such supplies of corn as they could raise on the vacant land within the enclosure of their walls. The diminished legions, destitute of pay, and provisions of arms and discipline, trembled at the approach, and even at the name of the barbarians." To remedy this disastrous state of things, the young Cæsar Julian, afterwards emperor, was sent into Gaul by Constantius; and in a short time he succeeded in driving the invaders beyond the Rhine.

When an interval of peace afforded him the necessary leisure, Julian diligently repaired the cities of Gaul, and introduced into them a new and uniform system of government. All distinctions disappeared; the Parisii, and others in the same condition, were placed on a level with the privileged nations, and their chief towns enjoyed the same rights as the *Coloniæ* and *Metropoles*. At the same time, those towns acquired the title of city, and exchanged their original name for the territorial appellation of the people. This change seems to have taken place in the period be-



tween the years 358 and 360. Before that period, the town of the Parisii is always spoken of under the name of *Lutetia*, or *Lucotetia*, or *Leuketia*, &c.; after that period it is more frequently called *Parisii*.

#### JULIAN MADE EMPEROR AT PARIS.

In the year 360, or shortly after Julian had restored the provinces of Gaul to a condition of safety, Paris witnessed his sudden elevation to the imperial dignity by the unanimous acclamations of the legions of Gaul. The jealousy and fears of the Emperor Constantius had induced him to resolve on disarming the Cæsar, and recalling his faithful troops to employ them in a distant war against the Persian monarch.

While Julian passed the laborious hours of his winter quarters at Paris, in the administration of his office, "he was surprised by the hasty arrival of a tribune and a notary, with positive orders from the emperor, which they were directed to execute, and he was commanded not to oppose. Constantius signified his pleasure, that four entire legions, the Celts, and Petulants, the Heruli, and the Batavians, should be separated from the standard of Julian, under which they had acquired their fame and discipline; that in each of the remaining bands three hundred of the bravest youths should be selected; and that this numerous detachment, the strength of the Gallic army, should instantly begin their march, and exert their utmost diligence to arrive, before the opening of the campaign, on the frontiers of Persia. The Cæsar foresaw and lamented the consequences of this mandate. Most of the auxiliaries, who engaged their voluntary service, had stipulated that they should never be obliged to pass the Alps. The public faith of Rome, and the personal honour of Julian, had been pledged for the observance of this condition. Such an act of treachery and oppression would destroy the confidence and excite the resentment of the independent warriors of Germany, who considered truth as the noblest of their virtues, and freedom as the most valuable of their possessions. The legionaries, who enjoyed the title and privileges of Romans, were enlisted for the general defence of the republic; but those mercenary troops heard with cold indifference the antiquated names of the republic and of Rome. Attached, either from birth or long habit, to the climate and manners of Gaul, they loved and admired Julian; they despised, and perhaps hated the emperor; they dreaded the laborious march, the Persian arrows, and the burning deserts of Asia. They claimed as their own the country which they had saved; and excused their want of spirit, by pleading the sacred and more immediate duty of protecting their families and friends. The apprehensions of the Gauls were derived from the knowledge of the impending and inevitable danger. As soon as the provinces were exhausted of their military strength, the Germans would violate a treaty, which had been imposed on their fears; and, notwithstanding the abilities and valour of Julian, the general of a nominal army, to whom the public calamities would be imputed, must find himself, after a vain resistance, either a prisoner in the camp of the barbarians, or a criminal in the palace of Constantius. If Julian complied with the order which he had received, he subscribed his own destruction, and that of a people who deserved his affection."

But a positive refusal was an act of rebellion; and the peremptory nature of the emperor's commands left no room for deliberation or delay. In the mean while the Cæsar was oppressed by the rude and importunate solicitations of the imperial messengers, who presumed to suggest, that if he expected the return of his ministers, he would charge himself with the guilt of the delay, and reserve for them the merit of the execution. Unable to resist, unwilling to comply, Julian expressed in the most serious terms, his wish, and even his intention, of resigning the purple, which he could not preserve with honour, but which he could abdicate with safety.

"After a painful conflict, Julian was compelled to acknowledge that obedience was the virtue of the most eminent subject; and that the sovereign alone was entitled to judge of the public welfare. He issued the necessary orders for carrying into execution the commands of Constantius: a part of the troops began their march for the Alps; and the detachments from the several garrisons moved towards their respective places of assembly. They advanced with difficulty through the trembling and affrighted crowds of provincials, who attempted to excite their pity by silent despair or loud lamentations; while the wives of the

soldiers, holding their infants in their arms, accused the desertion of their husbands in the mixed language of grief, of tenderness, and of indignation.

"This scene of general distress afflicted the humanity of the Cæsar; he granted a sufficient number of post-wagons, to transport the wives and families of the soldiers, endeavoured to alleviate the hardships which he was constrained to inflict, and increased, by the most laudable acts, his own popularity, and the discontent of the exiled troops. The grief of an armed multitude is soon converted into rage; their licentious murmurs, which every hour were communicated from tent to tent with more boldness and effect, prepared their minds for the most daring acts of sedition; and, by the connivance of their tribunes, a seasonable libel was secretly dispersed, which painted, in lively colours, the disgrace of the Cæsar, the oppression of the Gallic army, and the feeble vices of the tyrant of Asia. The servants of Constantius were astonished and alarmed by the progress of this dangerous spirit. They pressed the Cæsar to hasten the departure of the troops; but they imprudently rejected the honest and judicious advice of Julian, who proposed that they should not march through Paris, and suggested the danger and temptation of a last interview.

"As soon as the approach of the troops was announced, the Cæsar went out to meet them, and ascended his tribunal, which had been erected in a plain before the gates of the city. After distinguishing the officers and soldiers, who by their rank or merit deserved a peculiar attention, Julian addressed himself in a studied oration to the surrounding multitude; he celebrated their exploits with grateful applause; encouraged them to accept with alacrity the honour of serving under the eyes of a powerful and liberal monarch; and admonished them, that the commands of Augustus required an instant and cheerful obedience. The soldiers, who were apprehensive of offending their general by an indecent clamour, or of belying their sentiments by false and venal acclamations, maintained an obstinate silence; and, after a short pause, were dismissed to their quarters. The principal officers were entertained by the Cæsar, who professed, in the warmest language of friendship, his desire and his inability to reward, according to their deserts, the brave companions of his victories. They retired from the feast, full of grief and perplexity, and lamented the hardship of their fate, which tore them from their beloved general and their native country. The only expedient which could prevent their separation was boldly agitated and approved; the popular resentment was insensibly moulded into a regular conspiracy; their just reasons of complaint were heightened by passion, and their passions were inflamed by wine: as on the eve of their departure the troops were indulged in licentious festivity.

"At the hour of midnight, the impetuous multitude, with swords, and bows, and torches in their hands, rushed into the suburbs, encompassed the palace, and, careless of future dangers, pronounced the fatal and irrevocable words, Julian Augustus! The prince, whose anxious suspense was interrupted by their disorderly acclamations, secured the doors against their intrusion; and, as long as it was in his power, secluded his person and dignity from the accidents of a nocturnal tumult. At the dawn of day, the soldiers, whose zeal was irritated by opposition, forcibly entered the palace, seized with respectful violence the object of their choice, guarded Julian with drawn swords through the streets of Paris, placed him on the tribunal, and with repeated shouts saluted him as their emperor. Prudence as well as loyalty inculcated the propriety of resisting their treasonable designs, and of preparing for his oppressed virtue the excuse of violence. Addressing himself by turns to the multitude and to individuals, he sometimes implored their mercy, and sometimes expressed his indignation; conjured them not to sully the fame of their immortal victories, and ventured to promise, that if they would immediately return to their allegiance, he would undertake to obtain from the emperor not only a free and gracious pardon, but even the revocation of the orders which had excited their resentment.

"But the soldiers, who were conscious of their guilt, chose rather to depend on the gratitude of Julian, than on the clemency of the emperor. Their zeal was insensibly turned into impatience, and their impatience into rage. The inflexible Cæsar sustained till the third hour of the day, their prayers, their reproaches, and their menaces; nor did he yield, till he had been repeatedly assured, that if he wished to live, he must consent to reign. He was

exalted on a shield in the presence and amidst the unanimous acclamations of the troops; a rich military collar, which was offered by chance, supplied the want of a diadem; the ceremony was concluded by the promise of a moderate donative; and the new emperor, overwhelmed with real or affected grief, retired into the most secret recesses of his apartment."

#### JULIAN'S DESCRIPTION OF PARIS.

In the *Misopogon*\* of the Emperor Julian, we have a brief but interesting account of Paris as it existed in the latter part of the fourth century. He introduces it in the course of some remarks upon the temperance which he constantly practised in his domestic life; relating an incident which occurred to him in that city.

"I was in winter-quarters in my dear Lutetia, as the little capital of the Parisii is styled in Gaul. It occupies an island of small extent, surrounded by the waters of the river; and is approached on two sides by bridges of wood. It is seldom that the river is affected very much by the rains of winter, or by the droughts of summer. Its pure waters are agreeable to the sight, and excellent to drink; the inhabitants would find it difficult to procure any others, placed as they are in an island. The winter there is not severe; a circumstance attributed to the ocean, which is distant only nine hundred stadia (about 110 miles), and which may from thence afford exhalations capable of tempering the climate. It seems, in fact, that the sea-water is less cold than fresh-water. However that may be, the people of Lutetia have good vines, and even fig-trees, since care has been taken to cover them with straw and other things which protect them from the injuries of the air.

"The year in question, an extraordinarily severe winter covered the river with masses of ice. You know the blocks of white marble which are extracted from the quarries of Phrygia; I cannot better represent to you those enormous pieces of ice which floated at the mercy of the waters, and following without intermission, were ready to unite and form a bridge. I did not choose to have the chamber in which I slept warmed, although in that country most rooms are warmed, and everything was prepared in mine to furnish this convenience. More savage and hardy than ever, I gave myself up to my disposition, and was very properly the first victim of it. I struggled against the rigour of the season, and unrelentingly refused myself an aid which it rendered necessary. The cold increased every day, and at last became insupportable. Nevertheless I contented myself with having some lighted coals brought into my room, fearing that too great a heat might draw out the damp of the walls. But this fire, indifferent as it was, exhaled a vapour which affected my head, and caused me to sleep. I thought that I should have been suffocated; but being carried out, and the physicians having removed the little nourishment which I had taken in the evening, I felt myself relieved."

We do not learn from this description, or from other sources, whether any walls encompassed the island on which the city stood, at the period in question. It is probable that there were none, but that they were added towards the close of the Roman dominion, as they certainly existed at the beginning of the rule of the Franks. The two bridges which Julian mentions, as communicating between the island of the city, and the northern and southern banks of the river, were of wood. That on the south side was called the "little bridge," and stood where the bridge bearing that name at the present day—the *Petit Pont*—stands. That on the north was called the "great bridge," and it occupied nearly the site of the modern *Pont au Change*.

The corporation, or municipal body, established in Paris under Julian's new system of administration, necessarily had an edifice appropriated to its meetings, and the deposit of its records. This was probably the building afterwards known as the *Palais de la Cité*, the site of which is at present occupied by the *Palais de Justice*. The ground on which it stood formed the western end of the island, until the addition made in the reign of Henry the Fourth. At the eastern end, upon the site of a heathen altar, dedicated to Jupiter, is supposed to have been a christian church, consecrated in the name of St. Stephen. It was probably the

first cathedral, Paris having already become the seat of a bishopric. In the middle of the island was an open area, or place, appropriated to the purposes of commerce.

#### THE PALAIS DES THERMES, OR PALACE OF THE BATHS.

In the southern portion of Paris, at no great distance from the Seine, are to be seen some considerable remains of an edifice of Roman construction, which for the last seven centuries have constantly borne the name of *Palais des Thermes*,—a name which itself indicates a Roman origin. That there existed at Paris an imperial residence, might be inferred from the fact, that several emperors and Cæsars passed the winter there; and such a building is evidently referred to by Julian in the description above quoted. It is, however, distinctly mentioned by the historians who relate the circumstances of his elevation to the imperial dignity. Zosimus speaks of a *Basilica*—a name which in his days signified an imperial palace; Ammianus Marcellinus calls the residence of Julian a *palatium* and a *regia*,—both words denoting a Royal palace. The latter writer also informs us that it contained *latebras occultas*, or secret recesses, into which Julian retired; and a *consistorium*, or hall, in which, after having yielded to the wishes of his troops, he held a council, and into which the soldiers tumultuously rushed when the false report of his death was spread abroad.

The identity of the edifice thus pointed out, with the Palais des Thermes of modern days, is very probable. A constant tradition places a palace on the site of the present ruins; and the historian, Gregory of Tours, in the sixth century, refers to it as the building in which Clotilde the widow of the Frank King, Clovis, dwelt with her grandsons, when their cruel uncles obtained possession of two of them and put them to death, to secure their inheritance. A Latin poet of the seventh century styles it an *arx celsa*, or lofty citadel, telling us likewise, in describing its gardens, that it was the residence of Ultrogatha and her daughters, the widow of Charibert, king of Paris, one of the cruel uncles above-mentioned. In the twelfth century we find documentary evidence of a decisive character; a deed of the year 1138 mentions it, with the appellation of *Thermæ* for the first time attached to it. A poet who flourished at Paris about 1180, describes it in pompous language as a "house of kings, whose summits rose to the skies, and whose foundations reached to the empire of the dead." &c. Frequent mention is made of the *Palais des Thermes* in subsequent ages.

The ancient palace was evidently of great extent. Southward, its buildings extended to the space since occupied by the celebrated college of the Sorbonne; while northward, they have been traced by antiquaries in cellars, and by the aid of fragments no longer existing, as far as the river. The principal remains are contained within a mass of building formed by the *Rue de la Harpe* on the west, the *Rue de St. Jacques* on the east, the *Rue du Foin* on the north, and the *Rue des Mathurins* on the south. Some years ago, the entrance was by a house which was situated in the *Rue de la Harpe*, and which, together with the ruins, was the property of a cooper, who used the great hall as a depository for his casks, and who had it in his power, if he chose, entirely to demolish this interesting monument. But in 1819 the prefect of the department of the Seine purchased this property, and the design was formed of converting it into a museum of antiquities. The houses which concealed the ruins from the *Rue de la Harpe*, were pulled down; and the necessary steps were taken to protect them from further injury.

The only perfect part of this palace remaining is a hall, presenting in its plan two contiguous parallelograms, forming together a single room. The largest is sixty-two feet in length by forty-two feet in breadth, and the smallest is thirty feet by eighteen. The semicircularly-formed vault which covers this hall is forty-two feet above the ground; it is substantially built, and above it was, for a great number of years, a thick bed of mould, cultivated as a garden, and planted with trees. The architecture of this hall is plain and majestic. The walls are decorated with three grand arcades, of which that in the centre is the most lofty. In the wall to the south, the central arcade presents the form of a large semicircular recess, in which, as in the lateral arcades, some holes are pierced, which leads to the presumption that they served for the introduction of water to the baths. The vaulting of the roof rests upon consoles, which represent the sterns of ships; in one, some human figures may be distinguished. These sterns, the symbols of water, may probably have served to have characterised

\* This Greek word, signifying literally, *beard-hater*, was the title of a curious little work of Julian's, containing an ironical confession of his own faults, and a severe satire on the licentious and effeminate people of Antioch, who were disgusted with the rustic simplicity of his manners, and especially with the "beard" which he fondly cherished.



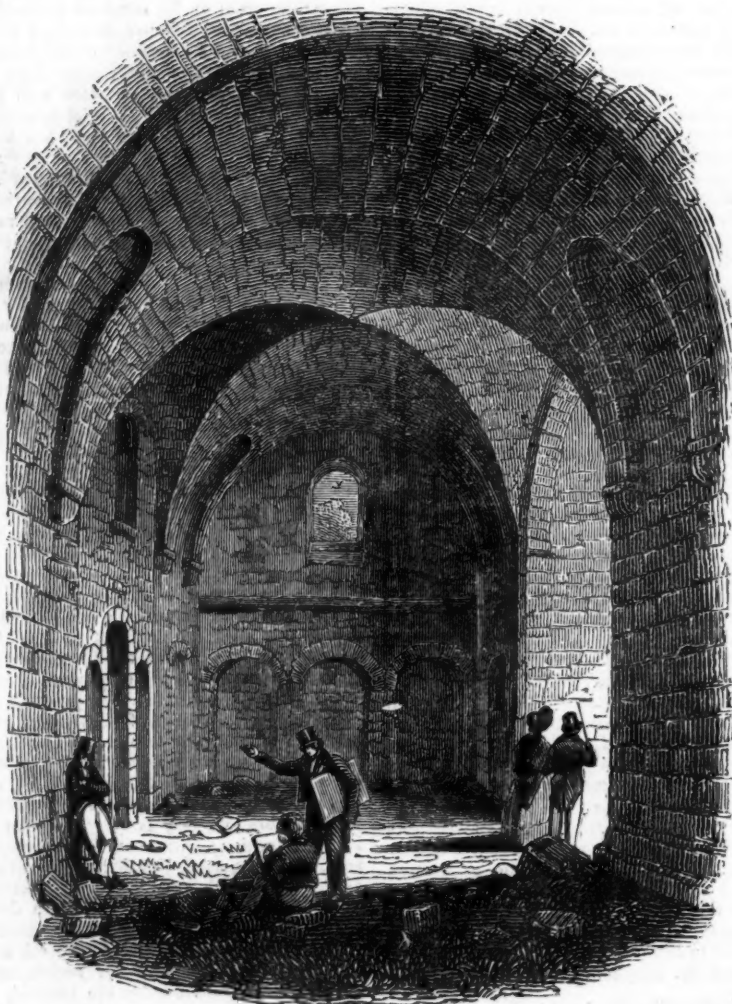
a place destined for baths. The masonry of this hall is composed of alternate rows of squared stones and bricks, covered in some places by a coat of stucco, four or five inches thick. A fine light enters by a circular-headed window, in front of the entrance above the great recess, and precisely under the arch of the vaulting. Beneath this hall are vaulted apartments, which extend to most of the neighbouring houses; and from north to south, along the floor of those under the hall, runs the aqueduct, about two feet wide, and one and a half deep, lined with cement. One of the halls which adjoined that now covered, may still be clearly traced to the west, and part of another is concealed in a house to the south. The subterranean apartment, where the stoves for heating the baths are supposed to have been placed, is seen near the street, and two narrow staircases, in good preservation, lead into it; behind it a well-vaulted sewer carried off the water to the river.

It is matter of considerable doubt by whom, and at what period, this palace was built. According to the common opinion, it was the work of Julian during his residence in Gaul, that is to say, between the latter end of the year 355 and the spring of 361; and it has therefore been sometimes called the palace of Julian. That Julian inhabited the Palais des Thermes is more than probable; but the simplicity of his taste and his severe economy are justly regarded as strong arguments against the supposition that he built it, especially when it is considered that the period of his administration in Gaul was a critical one, in which all his energy must have been directed to other objects of greater importance to the welfare of the state than the construction of a work of luxury and magnificence. Dulaure thinks

that the building of this palace should rather be attributed to Diocletian's colleague, Constantius Chlorus, who resided in Gaul during fourteen successive years, from 292 to 306, a period of peace favourable to such an undertaking. A strong argument in favour of this supposition is derived from the fact that a considerable resemblance exists between the masonry and architecture of this palace, and those of the Thermæ built by Diocletian about the same period at Rome\*. Adjoining the palace was a large garden, which in after times was known by the name of the *Clos de Lias*, or *Laas*.

Various other antiquities of Roman origin have been at different times discovered at Paris. Among them are the remains of two aqueducts, those of Arcueil and Chaillot. The former we shall have occasion to notice hereafter, as it has been repaired and converted into a modern water-course. The latter was a subterranean aqueduct which began at the heights of Chaillot, traversed the spot which now forms the Champs Elysées and the garden of the Tuileries, and probably terminated at about the middle of the garden of the Palais Royal. In 1763, when the Place Louis XV. or De la Concorde was formed, the pipes of this aqueduct were discovered; but the researches made in 1781 in the garden of the Palais Royal, led to more interesting results. Towards its southern extremity, three feet below the surface of the soil, was found a basin or reservoir of Roman construction, square in form and measuring twenty feet on each side; and at the same time were discovered medals of Aurelian, Diocletian, Magnentius, and other emperors.

\* See *Saturday Magazine*, Vol. XI., p. 46.



PART OF THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT ROMAN PALACE OF THE BATHS.